

# Concentrated Family Ownership Structures Weakening

*by* Tarmizi Achmad

---

**Submission date:** 11-Apr-2018 12:39PM (UTC+0700)

**Submission ID:** 944789854

**File name:** Structures\_Weakening\_Corporate\_Governance\_A\_Developing\_Count.doc (994K)

**Word count:** 4015

**Character count:** 22922

# Concentrated Family Ownership Structures Weakening Corporate Governance: A Developing Country Story The Case of Indonesian Companies

2

Irmawati, Irmawati

Faculty of Economics Universitas Diponegoro, Semarang, Indonesia

## Abstract

This research examines the effect of ownership structures on corporate governance. Data are obtained from 100 Indonesian companies. The findings show that 62% of Indonesian companies are controlled by the owners who have a majority ownership and that 63.81% of them are owned by a family group of members. These ownership structures are more inhibited than most other countries (Chessens et al 2000). Yet, the percentage of independent board (commissioners) is 39%. An independent board member is a rare event in Indonesia. Further regression analysis reveals that both ownership moderately significant predictors. Ownership structures in Indonesia influence leveraged independence. The Indonesian pattern is a somewhat extreme but not uncommon scenario. As a financial market, Western may argue that new laws and regulations may be needed to provide better protection to the stakeholders and investors.

Key words: Ownership structures, governance, developing

## Section 1 Introduction

This paper examines the relationship between ownership and governance structures in Indonesia. This is a classic Asian country with high ownership concentration and often large family ownerships. Therefore, the typical western-style corporate governance mechanisms (e.g. Sarbanes-Oxley approach) may be or counter a developing country scenario.

The paper is as follows. Section 2 highlights the key literature and the agency theory links to hypotheses development. Then the research approach is explained in Section 3. This is followed by the descriptive and statistical analysis in Section 4. The final section offers final conclusions.

## Section 2 Literature Review ownership structure

and the agency problem

One important issue in the organization of firms is how to solve the agency problem that derives from asymmetric information. The nature of a firm's structure will affect the nature of the agency and shareholders, and among shareholders.

But the problems that occur when firm ownership is dispersed are different to those that arise when it is concentrated. When ownership is diffused, as is typical for US and UK corporations, conflicts of interest between managers and shareholders are a central problem (Jensen and Meckling 1976). However, when ownership is concentrated to the degree that one owner has effective control at the firm, as typically the case for firms in Asia, conflicts of interest between controlling shareholders and minority shareholders becomes the main problem,

Claessens, Djankov and Lang (2000) investigated the separation of ownership in selected Asian countries. Their findings indicate that controlling single shareholder is prevalent in more than two-thirds of the firms while the separation of management from ownership control was rare. Thus Asian countries' owners have significant power to pursue own interests at expense of minority shareholders and other stakeholders. As Shleifer and Vishny (1991) point out, controlling shareholders may not have a convergence of interests with minority shareholders. A greater degree of control by controlling shareholders implies a greater ability to expropriate wealth from minority shareholders.

Past documents the relation between concentrated ownership structure and firm value. For example, Jensen and Meckling (1976) and Demsetz (1983) argue that managerial equity ownership will provide managers with incentives to maximize value, Stout (1980). However, he provided a model of entrenched managers, where increased managerial ownership allows managers to pursue non-value maximizing agendas. Using U.S. data, Morck, Shleifer and Vishny have empirically shown a non-linear relation between firm value and managerial ownership. They find that firm value increases up to a certain level of management (i.e., and then decreases as management holdings rise further). Similar results were also reported by McConnell and Servaes (1990; 1995),ermaln and Weisbach

(2003) and Krole (1995).

Fan and Wong, (2002) conduct a study on the relation between concentrated structure and financial reporting in seven Asian countries. They report that earnings informativeness decreases as the number of shareholders increases. They argue that is an expropriation of minority shareholders. Gaining effective control of a corporation enables the controlling owner to determine not just how the company runs, but also how are shared among shareholders. Although minority shareholders are entitled to cash flow rights proportional to their share of equity ownership, they find that an entrenched controlling owner may opportunistically deprive them of their rights. This is an 'entrenchment effect' (Morck et al. 1988). This entrenchment problem created by a controlling owner is similar to the managerial entrenchment problem. Higher managerial ownership might entrench managers, as they are increasingly less subject to governance mechanisms (Chang,



Hillman and Wang (2005),

Separation of ownership rights and control rights can worsen the entrenchment problems caused by concentrated ownership. Controlling owners could extract wealth from the firm but only bear a part of the cost through a lower valuation of their cash-flow ownership. There is considerable literature documenting the existence of private benefits from control (Barclay and Holderness 1989; Zingales 1994, 1995; Nenova 2003; Dyck and Zingales 2004).<sup>1</sup> In particular, Nenova (2003) and Dyck and Zingales (2004) show

<sup>1</sup> Private benefits, sometimes called control benefits, are benefits that accrue to managers or shareholders that have control of the corporation, but not to minority shareholders. They can be non-pecuniary, such as influence over who is elected on the board of directors or in CEO position, the power to build business empires (Nenova 2003), the ability to direct a company's resources to a cause one agrees (Demsetz and Lehn 1985), a preference for glamorous project (Jensen 1993).

by concentrated ownership. Controlling owners could extract wealth from the firm but only bear a part of the cost through a lower valuation of their cash-flow ownership. There is considerable literature documenting the existence of private benefits from control are associated with: less developed capital markets; less protection of minority shareholders; and more concentrated ownership.

In addition to the 'entrenchment effect', concentrated shareholding might treat an 'alignment effect'. Once controlling owner obtains firm, any increase in voting rights does not further entrench the controlling owner (Fan and Wong 2002). Fan and Wong (2002) argue that higher cash flow ownership will lead the controlling shareholder more to divert the firm's cash flows for private gain. High cash-flow ownership can serve as a signal that controlling owner will not expropriate wealth from minority shareholders (Gomes 2000) because if minority shareholders know that the controlling owner unexpectedly extracts more private benefits, they will discount the stock according to the majority owner's share value will be reduced (Fan and Wong 2002). Fan and Wong (2002) argue further, in equilibrium, where a majority holds a large ownership stake will result (other things being equal) a price for the company. Thus, increasing a controlling owner's cash flow rights improves the alignment of interests between the controlling owner and the minority shareholders and reduces the effects of entrenchment.

Concentration of ownership and extensive family control characterise corporate ownership in Asian countries and it is particularly most severe in Indonesia (Gompers et al., 2000). Claessens et al. (2000) documented that around 60% of Indonesian listed companies are while only 10% are widely held. They find that family ownership of any East Asian

country has the largest number of companies owned by a single

#### Ownership Structure and corporate governance

Ownership structure plays an important role in governance. is a key organizational variable influencing firm outcomes and Sorensen ownership structure is a central distinguishing feature of financial systems and (Stout and Johnson 2000) and a element in determining corporate governance and (Stout and Johnson 1997: Qu and, therefore, with other productive and technological resources can have a significant influence on company performance (Chrisman, Chua, and Sharma 1998). Further, Porter (1990) importance of ownership structure and corporate governance in determining corporate strategy:

Corporate goals are most determined by ownership: the attitudes of holders of debt, the nature of corporate governance, and the processes that shape motivation of senior managers. The most publicly reflected characteristics of that nation's capital markets (p,

Thus, ownership structure is an component in determining the nature of the agency problem; that is, the dominant conflict is managers and shareholders, or between controlling and minority shareholders. The key dimensions of ownership structure are: ownership concentration (ownership type) and the identity of owners (ownership 2005). There have been a number of studies on and its association

"performance (Lemseth and Lehn 1985, La and 1998: Himmert, Hubbard, and Palia and Demsetz 2001). La for explanatory variables to explain the ownership concentration in publicly rated firms widely set developed and countries, An important aspect of corporate ownership structure is the

identity of owners the composition of the ownership. A Shareholder can be an individual: a bank, a company, an investor, or a non-financial corporation. Not all owners are alike. Different types of ownership exist. Tighter ownership concentration, therefore, has incentives and consequences for the managers. As Lehmann and Waipand (2000) point out:

Ownership concentration and the willingness to intervene may crucially depend on who the action is taken. It can be a more important determinant of the degree of control exerted by owners than ownership concentration (p. 62). Owners can be distinguished from one another based on the specific expectations that they bring to the firm. The extent of their active monitoring of the firm (Monks and Minow 1997). Significant holdings by institutional investors are more likely to lead to improved monitoring and control than atomistic ownership (Hoskisson, Johnson, and 1994) because such parties have an incentive that is sufficient for them to be necessary to monitor performance (Alchian and Demsetz 1972, and Vishny, Holderness and Sheehan 1988; Gomes-Meija 1989;

Sundaram and Lyon 1998). In financial markets, investors may be interested in short-term returns on their investment, while corporate investors may be more inclined towards establishing a long-term relationship (Dumas, George, and Kalai 2006).

There have also been a number of studies on ownership structure, related to privatization (Boycko, Stille, and Vishny 1996; Fietman, Gray, Hessei, and Rapaczynski 1999; Oyck 2001; Cull, Matesova, and Shirley 2002). For example, Oyck (2001) and Boycko et al. (2002) found that foreign investors are the source of better governance and performance. However, Cull et al. (2002) and Friedman et al. (1999) found a contrary result, that is, domestic outsiders do better than foreign investors in privatizations in the Republic

Ownership patterns vary significantly across countries in successful developed economies, supported by a well legal regulatory framework and with active oversight by reputable agents, adequate institutional and professional infrastructure, such as the law and dispersed ownership, are conducive to growth and capital accumulation. Much of the literature on corporate governance is based on the diffused shareholding assumption. Therefore, the literature mainly focuses on solving conflict between managers (as agents) and shareholders (as principals) that results from the separation of ownership and control.

However, a recent stream into question the assumption of diffuse ownership and suggests that in many economies concentrated pattern of ownership is more typical. For example, Holderness, Kremer and Szechan (1999) analyze the change in managerial ownership in the USA (from 13% in 1935 to 15% in 1995). La Porta et al. (1998) found that average of the three largest shareholders of non-financial firms is 15%. There have also been a number of studies that have documented the existence of ownership by families. For La Porta et al. (1998) examined the large 27 wealthy economies and found that these firms are within families. Similarly, Chessens et al. (2000) examined nine East Asian economies and found the existence of family ownership and family management. A relatively recent study by Anderson and Reeb shows that family controlled firms represent one-third of the S&P 500 firms and, on average, 18% of equity.



As stated above, concentrated pattern of ownership not only allows insiders to have tight control of the firm but it also opens up opportunities to expropriate wealth from shareholders. Prowsz (1998) posits that much of the uncrated governance costs has been about the costs

eased concentration of ownership\_  
concentration is combined with



of dispersed equity' ownership. argued to encourage increased prosse (1998, p.24) paints out that -  
this only when there is weak outside shareholder protection laws in uncompetitive Panartial  
structure and opportunities for malfeasance and corruption by big powerful (insider) shareholders •  
that the costs associated with concentrated ownership become high

Compared to most developed economies, the business environment is quite different in  
many of the emerging market economies. For example, most companies in Asian countries are  
affiliated with a business group that typically cannot be divided. The group often comprises numerous public  
and private companies (Claessens, Djankov, Fan, and Lang 2002). The limit/effectiveness of the companies in  
the group using stock pyramids and cross-shareholdings, which can be quite complicated in  
structure. Claessens et al. (2000) point out that voting rights possessed by the family are  
frequently greater than the family's cash flow rights from the firm\* and the results of their study in  
nine East Asian countries suggests that • Indonesia has more than two-thirds (57%) of its publicly listed  
companies in family hands, and only 0.6% are held- (p. 103). Within East Asia, Indonesia has the  
largest number of companies by family (Claessens, Djankov, and Lang 1999).

the concentrated family issue has also been confirmed in several single-country studies: example, in  
South Korea, Yeh, Lee and Woidtko (2001) in Taiwan, and Wiwattanakantang (2000) in Thailand.  
Concentrated family ownership corporate structures complicate the problems associated with asymmetrical  
information, impeding monitoring, and opportunistic behaviour and make corporate governance reform more  
complicated. On the above literature review, key explanatory variables (owner type and owner identity) are  
utilised to predict the behaviour of directors called board of commissioners in next sections and analyse the  
Indonesian data set

### Section 3 Research Approach

#### Sample

To ensure data homogeneity, this study focuses solely on manufacturing companies identified by the In  
donesian Capital Market Directory (CMD). Another reason for manufacturing firms is that these firms are  
dominant in Asia and Indonesia. As Dittawan, Mangalwar, Padhi, Sankhe, Schwan and Paresi (2000, p.42)  
noted: 'Asia has become the world's most important manufacturing base' more than half of all manufacturing output is  
produced there. • Within the Indonesian context, Craig and Diga (1998, p. 248) noted that 'Indonesia was represented  
by manufacturing-type entities'

The sample examined in this study comprises manufacturing companies listed on the JSX as at the end  
of 2000. However, we are unable to collect sufficient information to build proxy 1 of the final  
sample of firms,

\*'Voting rights' refers the degree of control over a company, while 'cash flow rights' refers to shareholdings in the firm. If, for example, a family owns 60% of Firm A's equities, and Firm A owns 30% of Firm B's equities, then the family controls 30% of the voting rights of firm B but has only 18% ( $=60\% \times 30\%$ ) of the cash flow rights.

ness

The data sources used to trace the ultimate owner ultimately originate from ICMD publications issued by the Institute for Economic and Financial Research (2004, 2001). These data provide the firm's immediate owners. These owners are then and cross-checked through Indonesian Business Data Centre (153C) Information Resource Development (INFORDEV) (2000; Information Resource Development (INFORDEV) (1998) and firm's prospectuses to determine a company's ultimate owner. Given a firm could have many ultimate owners; this study focuses on the largest ultimate owner. To measure the degree of control, this study combines shareholdings registered in the name of the majority shareholder (i.e. through shareholders of companies that, in turn, under control). This procedure is justifiable since in Indonesia the companies on the capital market are family-controlled. Following Claessens et al (2000), this study does not distinguish individual family members and uses the family group as the unit of analysis. By identifying the name shares are registered, this study delineates family affiliation. Shares of individual members are treated as a family ownership.

The data sources measure the variables (dependent and control variables) collected from the JSX Statistics, April volume 16. It is issued by the JSX Research and Development

#### Estimation of dependent and independent variables

year and uses ownership as the prime predictors. Corporate governance is measured using the percentage of the board of commissioners of firm i at financial statement 31 Dec 2006. Independent Ownership refers to the of a firm's holders and the size of holdings (Owen and Annel 2003). Thus, there are two key dimensions ownership structure analyzed: ownership concentration (ownership and the identity of owners (Boubakri et al 2005).

Murali (1989) categorized ownership type into widely held firms and noted that • Effective control is assumed to exist when ownership by an individual or a small group is greater than fifty percent • family's (Hermalin and Sheehan (1988) type as either majority held or dispersed and argued that • A shareholder's primary objective is expropriation more than the (P\_32) Murali and Welch (1989) and Hermalin's and Sheehan (1988) study categorizes ownership concentration as either: majority-owned or non-majority-owned. Ownership is either one owner (person, family, or company), government (local or national), or foreign multi-owning > 5% of the shares in a company. A dummy variable is used to categorize firms as having a majority ownership structure and otherwise.

Majority ownership structure immediate ownership: that common shares directly owned by individuals or institutions. Fan and Bang (2002) argued that immediate ownership is not sufficient for characterizing the control of Asian firms because these firms generally associated with ownership structures. Therefore, ownership and complicated indirect ownership this study focuses on trace



ultimate ownership The ultimate owner is defined as the shareholder who has the determining voting rights of the company and who is not controlled by another body (Fan and 2002).

The ultimate ownership structures were computed by following existing studies (Claessens et al 2000: Faccio, Lang, and Yurg 2003; Claessens et al. 2002; Faccio and Lang 2002) meticulously traced the chain of ownership and identified the ultimate owner(s) that controlled the most voting rights (the controlling shareholder(s)) summing their direct and indirect ownership (voting rights) in a company. In many cases, the immediate shareholders of a firm are entities or ownership companies or other legal entities (Netl 2005). This study identifies their owners, the owners of their owners, etc. (Fan and (2002)), to economize on the data collection, the ultimate owner's voting rights level is set at 50% and not reached any further once that majority is reached. Claessens et al/ (2000) who studied ownership structure and control in nine East Asian countries including Indonesia, documented that in most cases ultimate owner was an individual or family. This is an important motivator for this study which places considerable emphasis on family ownership,

This study then further classifies ownership into individual, or group of firms, members, holding more than shares and largest controlling block. In the company the cut-off has also been adopted by researchers such as La Porta (1999) studied corporate ownership in 27 countries and (Claessens et al. 2000) who investigated company ownership in nine East Asian countries including Indonesia. La Porta et al, (1999), for argued that the idea behind using a cut-off is that this is usually enough to have effective control of a firm (M 477). Moreover, according to Indonesian Capital Market Law (1995) a person that directly or indirectly holds at least 10 percent voting rights in a company is called a 'substantial shareholder' (Sema). La Porta et al (1999) and Claessens et al (2002), this study does consider ownership by using the family as the unit of analysis. Family ownership also covers the interests of family members beyond their surnames (Lev it includes blood and marriage ties) and families are assumed to and vote collectively. A company is then classified according to data extracted from 'CMC, IBDC, and 'NFCIR' EV publications and firms' prospectuses. A dummy variable used to identify firms and is set equal to one if a firm is considered to be owned and otherwise,

#### Control variables

To control for confounding influences of cross-sectional factors this study includes auditor type, size and leverage as control variables in the regression analysis. The perceived quality of the auditor is also considered to be a possible determinant of the firm financial performance (e.g., Frankel, Johnson,

<sup>1</sup> Direct ownership occurs through shares registered in the name of the ultimate owner. Indirect ownership occurs through shares held by entities that are controlled by the ultimate owner.

<sup>2</sup> In many cases, the ownership of

these immediate companies can be collected from the prospectus of each company in the sample.

<sup>3</sup> There are several definitions of family firms, for example, see Villalonga and Amit

(2004). They include different combinations of family ownership, management, and control. This study is based on ownership.

<sup>4</sup> Indonesian Capital Market Law (Article 1, 1995) defines 'family affiliation' as a

'family relationship by marriage' and 'family relationship by descent' both to the second degree, horizontally as well as vertically.

auditor is



ind Nelson 2002: GUI. Cnen, and Tsui 2003). Prior research usuaHy distinguishes non-Big 4 and Big auait firms arguing the **atter to be of** a higher quality than the former (Henirw2001 Mayhew and Wilki 20031. Thâ5 sllytly includes Big 4 as a for perceived auditor quality. Indicatorvariable With **firm / scored** (1 the firm•s auditor in fiscal year t is a Big 4 accounting otherwise scored zero O. Size is a'so to be expected an impact on firms• governance structure (Black, Jang, Schmid, and Zimmerman 2003 Beirser, Orobetz, Schmidt and Zimmerman 20041 arownane Caylor 2004>, this study Size as another control in ffie regression mcdel. Size is calculated as the **natural logarithm** ot the **total assets firm i** at **financial statement date 31 December 2006**. Leverage is **d include**as priOt studies Show natinanting decisions might innuence the tjrm•s corporate govemance (Blackel a'. 2003: Brown ana Caylor 2004) We define Leverage as ratio of book value total ottirm to **dvalue total** ook **assets Of i** at **financial statement** aatt **31** ffnber 2005.

Proxy tar the dependnt, independent and control variables are detjr.ed Ln Table I as follows.

Table I: dõtion and description	
Variable Descriptbn	Variable Title
Dependenl Variable	
Percentage of the board of commissioners of tm at statement date December 2C06 tat is independent	
Independent Variðbles	
Indicator variable with firm / scored one (1) if one owner (person, family, •s a company), the government (local or national), or tcojgn at tinantläl statement date 31 December 2006 has a majority cwtetsntp 7an ot t:tle shares in a company); otherwise scored zero (0)	Owner Type
titm v' ) an of family at titanc-iäl stžzmentcate 31 Jeczmtcr21'lä rrwre Tan •at	owner 'ae,ntity
(votng n»ts) and IS the largest cont-Nita blĚk in ne scored	
Control	
Indicator variable with firm / scored one (1) if their auditor at financial statement date December 2006 is a Big 4 accounting firm; otherwise scored zero (0).	Aúðftor rype
31	
Natural ot tie reported at fm i at SEĖmer1t 31 200Ė.	Size
Ratio of book value total liabilities statement date 31 December 2006. ct nrm E öö0k value total assets of firm i at finarrtiil	LevÉrage

Section 4 Descriptive and Statistical Analysis

Table 2. Pareys A and provides descriptive statstcs tor dependant, independent and contro vanatyes.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics (N = 105)

Panel A – Continuous variables					
	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
%IndBoard	39.12	33.33	11.17	0.00	80.00
Size	2,781,654	593,000	7,923,522	28,000	57,929,290
%Leverage	66.80	57.63	60.07	5.29	46.04
Panel B – Dummy regression variables					
				Frequency	Percentage
Owner Type					
Majority				66	62.86
Non-majority				39	37.14
Owner Identity					
Family				67	63.81
Non-family				38	36.19
Auditor Type					
Big 4				50	47.62
Non-Big 4				55	52.38

Legend: %IndBoard: Percentage of the board of commissioners of firm *i* at financial statement date 31 December 2006 that is independent. Size: Total assets of firm *i* at financial statement date 31 December 2006. Leverage: Ratio of total liabilities of firm *i* to total assets of firm *i* at financial statement date 31 December 2006. Owner Type: Indicator variable with firm *i* scored one (1) if one owner (person, family, family's company), the government (local or national), or a foreign multinational has a majority ownership (more than 50% of the shares in a company); otherwise scored zero (0). Owner Identity: Indicator variable with firm *i* scored one (1) if an individual or group of family members holds more than 20% of a firm's shares (voting rights) and is the largest controlling block in the company; otherwise scored zero (0). Auditor Type: Indicator variable with firm *i* scored one (1) if a company's auditor is a Big-4 accounting firm; otherwise scored zero (0).

Panel A in Table 2 indicates that the percentage of independent board has an average of 39.12% with a median of 33.33%. This is consistent with many other developing countries that the percentage of independent board directors/commissioners and independent members of the audit committee are under 50%. The size of the companies that are included in the sample has a mean of IDR2,781,654. Average total liabilities to total assets ratio (Leverage) of the sample firms is 66.80%. In relation to the ownership structure observed across the sample firms, Panel B of the table indicated that 62.86% of firms are controlled by the owners who have a majority ownership (more than 50% of a company's outstanding share). Panel B also shows that 63.81% of firms are owned by an individual or group of family members. This is consistent with Claessens *et al.* (2000) finding that Indonesian ownership concentration is higher



than most other countries, with the major shareholders controlling 51% of all corporations. Finally, only 47.62% of firms hired a Big 4 audit firm as their auditor. This frequency is lower than the case of Australian and Singaporean (57.54% and 86.38% respectively); (Rusmifi, Van der Zahn Tower, and Brown 2006). The main results' testing hypotheses (H<sub>1</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>) are reported in Table 3.

Table 3: Results at multivariate regression

	t. stat	Sig.
(Constant)		
Type		
Owner Identity	.1662	
Audit Type		
		0.573
Leverage		
Model Summary		
F-statistic		0.173
R-Square		
R-Squared		
Sample Size		

Legend: \* Moderately statistical significant  $p \leq .05$

The Table 3 regression model estimates\* shows that the coefficient on Owner Type is positive and statistically moderately significant at  $p < 0.05$ . Therefore, H<sub>1</sub> is supported. This finding infers that ownership concentration has a positive impact on corporate governance. Jensen and Meckling (1976) and Demsetz (1983), for examples, argue that managerial equity ownership will provide managers with incentives to maximize firm value. However, recent contradictory to Stranjanjuntak (1999) who find that management of Indonesian listed companies generally under the control of a majority shareholder who tended to act in the interests of controlling shareholders by expropriating wealth from the minority shareholders. Table 3 also shows that a negative and moderately significant association (at a



<sup>a</sup> A correlation matrix (not shown for brevity) reveals that %IndBoard is positively (negatively) associated with the Owner Type (Owner Identity) both for Pearson and Spearman correlations. In addition, there is no significant correlation amongst the two independent variables.

<sup>b</sup> Further backward regression analysis (again not shown for brevity) finds confirmatory results illustrating that Owner Type and Owner Identity are significant predictors of firms' corporate governance (p-values 0.076 and 0.068 respectively).

moderate level.  $p < 0.1$ ) between Owner Identity and the corporate governance proxy. This result supports the acceptance of  $H_1$ , suggesting that the presence of high concentrated shareholdings by family members may have an impact on corporate governance. Specifically, the concentrated family ownership may have a negative impact on the corporate governance. This is consistent with previous studies in different countries. For example, (2003) in South Korea, Yeh et al. (2001) in Taiwan, and Nakantang (2001) in Thailand documented that family ownership structures complicate the problems associated with asymmetric information, imperfect monitoring, and opportunistic behaviour and make corporate governance reform more complex.

Further analysis using Inception tests reveals that significant association between Majority and Size is driven by presence of high ownership concentration in the firms. As shown in Table 4, the average percentage of independent board at commission in majority ownership firms (40.50%) is significant (at  $p < 0.062$ ) than non-majority ownership firms.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics — Type

	N	%Indgclid			
		Mean	sd		
1 (Majority)			12.73		0.062
0 (Non-majority)					

Legend: \*

Apart from the Inception coefficients on Auditor Type, Size and Leverage are all positive related to NcfBoard. This finding is contrary to previous literature which assumes: 4 as quality findings reported in numerous support that the Big auditors provide higher quality audit than those Non-Big 4 (e.g., Dechow, Sloan, and Subramanyam 1998; Francis, Maydew, and Sparks 1999; Goto, Pope, and Singh 2003). The insignificant relationship between Size and governance measurement is with previous research (e.g., Black et al. 2003; Beiner et al. 2004). Finally, the Leverage is not completely consistent with previous works. Examples Brown and (2004) and Slack et al. (2003), who report positive association between leverage and corporate governance measurements.

Section 5 Conclusions

Asian companies have fundamentally different ownership than Western counterparts Indonesian companies are even more with very large family ownership dispersion of shares (Claessens et al, 2000). This research project examines the effect of such ownership structure on corporate governance.

<sup>8</sup> Additional analysis, however, shows that there is no significant difference between family and non-family-owned firms in placing independent board of commissioners of the companies ( $p = .123$ ) with the %IndBoard average 37.85 and 41.35 percentage respectively.

Two sophisticated measures for ownership structure are created. The first is ownership type. Great care was taken to determine the ultimate owner by carefully tracing the ownership and identifying the ultimate owner(s) that control the company by summing their direct and indirect ownership (voting rights) in a company. A dummy variable is used to categorize firms, set equal to one if a firm has a majority ownership structure and zero otherwise. It is shown that 62.86% of firms are controlled by the owners who have a majority ownership. The second measure is that ownership identity. A dummy variable is used to identify firms and is set to one if a firm is considered to be family owned (controlled) and zero otherwise. Our data reveals that 40% of firms are owned by an individual or group of family members. This is significantly higher than most other countries (Claessens et al 2000).

In Indonesia, percentage of independent board (commissioners) is 39.12%. A majority of independent board members remains a rare event in Indonesia. Multiple regression analysis reveals that both ownership type and identity are moderately significant predictors for board independence. Ownership structures in Indonesia do influence the level of board independence.

These findings are likely to be alarming for the Indonesian regulator (BAPEPAM). Very high ownership concentration levels created by families are inherent to the Indonesian corporate landscape. These ownership patterns directly reduce the independence of board members. Controls by owners unfairly treating minority shareholders are weakened. This Indonesian pattern is a somewhat not uncommon scenario in Asian financial markets. Western solutions may not be applicable (effective new rules and regulations may provide more protection to the smaller investors).





# Concentrated Family Ownership Structures Weakening

## ORIGINALITY REPORT

1 %	%	1 %	%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

## PRIMARY SOURCES

1	Emita W. Astami, Rusmin Rusmin, Bambang Hartadi. "OWNERSHIP STRUCTURE, CHARATERISTIC DIFFERENCES AND THE SIZE OF CORPORATE BOARD OF COMMISSIONER: THE CASE OF INDONESIA STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES", Corporate Board: role, duties and composition, 2011 Publication	1 %
2	Fitra Roman Cahaya, Stacey Porter, Greg Tower, Alistair Brown. "Coercive pressures on occupational health and safety disclosures", Journal of Accounting in Emerging Economies, 2017 Publication	<1 %

Exclude quotes	Off	Exclude matches	Off
Exclude bibliography	Off		

# Concentrated Family Ownership Structures Weakening

GRADEMARK REPORT

FINAL GRADE

/0

GENERAL COMMENTS

Instructor

PAGE 1

PAGE 2

PAGE 3

PAGE 4

PAGE 5

PAGE 6

PAGE 7

PAGE 8

PAGE 9

PAGE 10

PAGE 11

PAGE 12

PAGE 13